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## Review article

# Targeting aberrant cancer metabolism – The role of sirtuins

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### ABSTRACT

Cancer cells, as opposed to normal cells, generate energy by increasing aerobic glycolysis, which is a phenomenon called “the Warburg effect”. An altered energy metabolism supporting continuous cell growth and proliferation was pointed to as the new “hallmark” of cancer cells. Several hypotheses have been proposed to explain the maintenance of this seemingly wasteful catabolic state. The epigenetic mechanisms which depend on the covalent modifications of both DNA and histones have recently emerged as important players in the regulation of glucose metabolism. The sirtuin family of histone deacetylases has emerged as important regulators of diverse physiological and pathological events, including cancer metabolism. Sirtuins 1–7 (SIRT1–7) belong to class III of histone deacetylase enzymes which are dependent on NAD<sup>+</sup> for activity. It was recently demonstrated that SIRT6 is a tumor suppressor that modulates aerobic glycolysis by repressing HIF1 transcription. Members of this family of enzymes are considered promising pharmaceutical targets for cancer treatment. This review highlights the major functions of sirtuins in relation to cancer metabolism and the possibilities of their activation and inhibition by small molecule drugs.

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Abbreviations: CAC, citric acid cycle; ROS, reactive oxygen species; SIRT, sirtuin; STACs, sirtuin-activating compounds.

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## 29 Introduction

30 Q2 The fundamental feature of tumor cells is uncontrolled  
31 proliferation. A rich body of knowledge has been gained in the  
32 past few decades regarding the molecular mechanisms of  
33 this phenotype change. According to the somatic mutation theory,  
34 tumorigenesis appears to result from random genetic and/or  
35 epigenetic changes, and is described as “an unidirectional process  
36 which occurs in a stepwise manner” [1]. However, a close  
37 examination of the various models of tumorigenesis reveals that  
38 a unified concept of the origin of cancer has not yet emerged,  
39 despite intense efforts to integrate the wealth of disparate data  
40 that has accumulated over the past several decades. Among the  
41 alternative theories which may reframe the classical paradigm of  
42 carcinogenesis, those which take into consideration the formation  
43 of cancer stem cells and the involvement of the cell microenviron-  
44 ment are the most promising [2,3]. Irrespective of the explanatory  
45 utility of these theories, one of the most intriguing features of  
46 cancer cells is the appearance of aerobic glycolysis, known as the  
47 Warburg effect.

48 This phenomenon, which was first observed by Otto Warburg in  
49 the 1920s, was initially thought to be adaptation to hypoxic  
50 conditions, but later studies showed that the mutations that lead to  
51 tumorigenesis also cause aerobic glycolysis by up-regulating the  
52 expression of glycolytic genes at the transcriptional level [4]. The  
53 Warburg effect seemed to be incompatible with the concept of  
54 the stepwise evolutionary progression of normal cells to cancer  
55 cells. This is because aerobic glycolysis is very inefficient when it  
56 comes to energy generation, and by producing lactate it also causes  
57 an acidic environment that is unsuitable for cell proliferation.  
58 Therefore, it was assumed that it cannot confer rapid proliferation  
59 and provide a selective advantage to cancer cells. However, it is  
60 now widely accepted that the Warburg effect is in fact one of the  
61 key features of tumorigenesis [5]; it not only promotes rapid  
62 uncontrolled proliferation but also confers invasive properties.  
63 Indeed, solid tumors often exhibit areas of hypoxia and acidosis [6],  
64 which stimulate angiogenesis and further augment tumor growth.  
65 Analyses based on evolutionary game theory and systems biology  
66 also point to the importance of the Warburg effect in tumorigene-  
67 sis [7]. We have come a long way in realizing that cancer cells  
68 cannot do away with aerobic glycolysis [8], and the Warburg effect  
69 has been proposed as a fundamental property of tumor cells rather  
70 than as the consequence of malignant transformation.

71 Several hypotheses have been proposed regarding the mainte-  
72 nance of this seemingly wasteful catabolic state. Recent investiga-  
73 tions of the mechanisms that underlie the Warburg effect suggest  
74 that: (1) mitochondrial uncoupling can promote aerobic glycolysis  
75 in the absence of permanent and transmissible alterations to the  
76 oxidative capacity of cells; (2) aerobic glycolysis may represent a  
77 shift to the oxidative metabolism of non-glucose carbon sources,  
78 e.g. particularly glutamine, which is an amino acid that is  
79 ultimately converted to  $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate in the mitochondria in  
80 order to enter the citric acid cycle (CAC) [9]; and (3) mitochondrial  
81 uncoupling may be associated with increased resistance to  
82 chemotherapeutic insults [10].

83 Besides the hypotheses that suggest the direct involvement of  
84 overexpressed uncoupling proteins (UCPs) in the Warburg effect  
85 [11], several new ideas have recently emerged indicating that  
86 alterations in the glycolytic pathway itself may be equally or even  
87 more important.

88 In this regard, it was suggested that pyruvate kinase M2 (PKM2)  
89 or hexokinase 2 might be the key mediators of aerobic glycolysis  
90 and promote tumor growth at least in certain types of tumors  
91 [12,13]. Moreover, PKM2 was shown to function as a co-activator  
92 of hypoxia-inducible factor 1 $\alpha$  (HIF1 $\alpha$ ). However, new concepts  
93 that point to how epigenetic alterations may orchestrate changes

in glucose metabolism in cancer cells appear to be especially  
promising. Epigenetic mechanisms are responsible for the regula-  
tion of gene expression through the covalent modifications of DNA  
and histones, which affect the chromatin architecture. Among the  
many proteins that are engaged in the regulation of covalent  
histone modifications, sirtuins might play a particularly important  
role in their relevance to metabolic regulation [14,15]. On the other  
hand, these proteins may also act on non-histone targets and thus  
may directly modulate protein activity via non-epigenetic  
mechanisms. In this review we describe the role of sirtuins in  
cancer energetic metabolism and the possible application of their  
modulation in therapeutic or chemopreventive strategies.

## Epigenetics and cancer metabolism

It is becoming evident that epigenetic changes may substan-  
tially contribute to the Warburg effect in addition to the  
mechanisms that are related to genetic changes and aberrant  
gene expression [16]. Two changes that are integral to epigenetic  
transcriptional control are DNA methylation and covalent mod-  
ifications of histone proteins, particularly their acetylation.

In this regard, it was found that fructose-1,6-bisphosphatase 1  
(FBP1), which under physiological conditions can suppress  
glycolysis by reducing the level of fructose-1,6-bisphosphate, is  
epigenetically silenced as a result of its promoter methylation in  
gastric and breast cancer cells [17,18].

Interestingly, FBP1 is down-regulated in oncogenic Ras-  
transformed cells, gastric cancer cell lines as well as primary  
gastric carcinomas. Restoration of FBP1 leads to inhibition of  
cancer cell growth, although it is unclear whether such a growth-  
inhibitory effect depends solely on its glycolysis suppression  
function. Nevertheless, the epigenetic silencing of FBP1 could  
confer certain growth advantages in tumor cells, thus playing an  
important role in tumor progression. Indeed, promoter hyper-  
methylation of *FBP1* is associated with poor outcome in gastric  
cancer patients. Moreover, NF- $\kappa$ B activity, which is indispensable  
to the Ras-mediated transformation, seems to be essential in the  
maintenance of epigenetic silencing of *FBP1*. The NF- $\kappa$ B family of  
transcription factors plays a crucial role in the regulation of  
inflammatory and immune responses, cell survival, cell prolifera-  
tion, and in carcinogenesis [19].

NF- $\kappa$ B-dependent silencing of *FBP1* thus represents a new link  
between inflammation and carcinogenesis. The major activator of  
NF- $\kappa$ B, i.e. TNF $\alpha$ , is increased in a tumor-permissive microenvi-  
ronment. By promoting NF- $\kappa$ B activation and consequent  
*FBP1* silencing, signals from the tumor microenvironment can  
switch the oxygen-dependent glucose metabolism into oxygen-  
independent glycolysis. Together with its well-known anti-  
apoptotic functions, this novel function of NF- $\kappa$ B can promote  
the survival and proliferation of initiated tumor cells in a hypoxic  
microenvironment, thus facilitating tumor development.

Changes in the profile of covalent modifications of histone  
proteins also play an important role in the alteration of gene  
expression that leads to carcinogenesis. Histone proteins, which  
build the nucleosome core, contain a globular C-terminal domain  
and an unstructured N-terminal tail. The N-terminal tails of  
histones can undergo a variety of posttranslational covalent  
modifications, including methylation, acetylation, ubiquitylation,  
sumoylation, and phosphorylation on specific amino acid residues.  
Histone modifications work by either changing the accessibility of  
chromatin or by recruiting and/or occluding non-histone effector  
proteins, which decode the message encoded by the modification  
patterns. Unlike DNA methylation, histone modifications can lead  
to either activation or repression of transcription, which depends  
on the localization of the residue and the type of modification;  
for example, lysine acetylation correlates with transcriptional

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